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INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH HISTORY

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Class 1732

Book 53

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JUN 25 1917

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INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH HISTORY

HISTORY is an authentic and systematic record of events in the career of a nation or community.

In its strict sense it contains the five elements of (1) authenticity; (2) a scheme, or philosophical system, of statement; (3) a narration of matters of public and general interest; (4) a narration of past events; (5) a recorded (written) statement.

The word is often used in a broader sense when one, or more, of the above elements may be lacking, or as synonymous with "narrative."

Protohistoric is a term sometimes used to denote those matters relating to the beginnings of historical records, that is, when such records have not put on an authentic shape or their meanings are clouded in the obscurity of the long distant past.

Prehistoric denotes those matters relating to a period antedating history and for an account of which we have no written records.

CHRONOLOGY is a system for the arrangement of events according to their relative happening, or sequence, as to time.

The chronological system we use is based upon the Birth of Christ. Time before that event is reckoned backward and is denoted by the abbreviation B. C. (Before Christ) and time subsequent is designated by the abbreviation A. D. (*Anno Domini*, in the Year of Our Lord). It was first introduced by a Roman monk, Dionysius Exiguus, about the year 533 A. D. He fixed the Birth of Christ

in the year 754 of the Roman Era, but began the year 1 with the Annunciation (March 25) of the preceding year. It is now believed that he made a mistake in calculating the year so that the Birth of Christ took place four years earlier. There is a difference of opinion as to this and some claim that Jesus was born in the year 3 B. C., others, in 4 B. C., while still others assert that He was born in 5 B. C.

The time from the Birth of Christ is called the Christian Era.

The Gregorian Calendar came into use in England in 1752 A. D., and it is necessary to say something of this system of dividing time into years, months, days, etc., as well as of the time for beginning the year, since in historical reading it is well to understand that different methods existed just as there have been different chronological systems. Julius Caesar introduced (46 B. C.) that system of dividing time which is known as the Julian Calendar. This system continued in general use throughout Europe until it was found that the true time of the commencement of the equinoxes did not correspond with the calendar, so that the difference in the sixteenth century amounted to about ten days. To correct this error Pope Gregory XIII assembled certain learned men who formed a plan for the amendment of the existing system of computation, and in the year 1582 A. D. it was formally promulgated by the Pope. Dates under the Julian Calendar are sometimes designated as O. S., meaning old style, while those under the Gregorian Calendar are designated by the abbreviation N. S., or new style, to distinguish them from the former when occasion requires.

In England the Gregorian Calendar was not adopted until the year 1751, when, by a statute of that year (Statute 24 George II, Chap. 23), it was provided that, in the year 1752, the day following the second day of September should be called the fourteenth day of September, in other words that eleven days should be dropped from the calendar of that year, since by that time the discrepancy of the Julian Calendar from true time amounted to this number of days.

This statute made another important change. In England, prior to 1752, the legal and ecclesiastical year commenced on the 25 March, although the popular reckoning was January 1. It was now enacted (by the above-mentioned statute) that the legal year should begin on January 1, and that this change should commence on the first day of January following the last day of December, 1751, that is January which would have been known as January, 1751, should be called January, 1752. For some time thereafter it was usual to give two dates for an occurrence between the first day of January and the twenty-fifth day of March, thus: March, 1752-53; February, 1753-54; January, 1758-59.

The system of dating a year by the sovereign's reign is still used in English statutes, as shown above, and, in this connection, it is well to remember that a statute may be of the one or the other of two calendar years in which the year of the reign may be unless the accession takes place on January 1, when, necessarily, the year of the reign synchronizes with the calendar year.

History is usually divided into the three great epochs—Ancient, Mediaeval and Modern.

Ancient History extends from the earliest times to the downfall of the Western Roman Empire (476 A. D.).

Mediaeval History (that is, History of the Middle Ages) extends from the downfall of the Western Roman Empire (476 A. D.) to modern times, which different historians fix at different dates as: at the fall of Constantinople and the Eastern Roman Empire (1453 A. D.); at the discovery of America (1492 A. D.); at the Reformation (1517-1520 A. D.). It covers a period of about a thousand years.

Modern History extends from the ending of the Middle Ages to the present times.

As these divisions are arbitrary as to the exact time and typify certain great changes in civilization the periods may be classified as follows:

Ancient History (from the earliest times of historical record to the year 500 A. D.)

Mediaeval History (from 500 A. D. to 1500 A. D.).

Modern History (from 1500 A. D. to and including the present times.)

Some, however, divide history into two great divisions—Ancient and Modern—and treat Mediaeval History as belonging to the latter.

These define Ancient History to be the history of those times prior to the downfall of the Western Roman Empire and Modern History to extend from that date (476 A. D.) to the present.

The Dark Ages is a term applied to the eclipse of learning in Europe, or from the coming of the barbarian hordes against Rome to the Italian Renaissance, that is

from about the beginning of the fifth century to the thirteenth century.

DERIVATION OF NAMES. It may be well to give at this point certain data regarding the names of the constituent parts of Great Britain.

Great Britain is a term used to denote England, Scotland and Wales and also, in a generic sense, the British Empire.

The etymology of the word is unknown. The old chroniclers give an account, considered to be purely mythical, of the conquest of Britain by Brutus, from whom the island took its name. This Brutus was the great grandson of Aeneas and, being driven from Italy, went to Troy, whence, with a band of followers there collected, he came to Britain and defeated a race of giants living in the land.

The Welsh Bards state that it was called the Island of Bryt, or Prydain, and it is from this last word that some think the name is derived. Others attribute the name to the Celtic word "brit," meaning painted, because the ancient Britons were in the habit of painting their bodies. Still others derive the name from the Punic "brt-ank," meaning "the land of tin," and some late scholars ascribe to it a Germanic origin. In the old writings it is called Breten, Breoten and names of a similar sound.

As the lower part of the island became united into a kingdom, known as England, under Egbert (827 A. D.), and the Picts and Scots of the north formed the kingdom of Scotland under Kenneth McAlpin (middle of the ninth century), the name of Britain was only used in a his-

torical sense until the time of King James I, who, as King James VI of Scotland, united the crowns of the two kingdoms in himself. Although James wished to adopt the title "King of Great Britain," the Parliament demurred and refused to sanction its use. When, however, the Act of Union became effective on May 1, 1707, the kingdoms of England and Scotland were united under the name of Great Britain and Anne was styled "Queen of Great Britain, France and Ireland." Upon the passage of the Act of Union with Ireland, which became effective January 1, 1801, the name became the "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland became an empire officially when, in the year 1876, Queen Victoria assumed the title of Empress of India. The title of King George V is "George V, by the Grace of GOD, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions Beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

While the term Briton may be used to denote an inhabitant of Britain, yet it is generally used to designate those older Celtic inhabitants described by Caesar and afterward conquered by the Anglo-Saxon tribes.

Albion was the name given to the island in ancient times and was so called from the white cliffs of the English Channel which resembled "mountains covered with snow" and known in Celtic as "alpen" or "alp."

ENGLAND is the name of the southern part of the island of Great Britain and is sometimes used to include that portion more particularly known as Wales.

It means the land of the Angeln, or Angles, that is the land of the people who formerly dwelt in that district of Schleswig known as “Angul.”

The word “angul,” or “angel” (cognate with the English word “angle”), meant in Anglo-Saxon a hook, or fish-hook, the Aryan root of the word being “ank,” meaning “to bend,” and so it is supposed that the tribe or people living in that portion of Schleswig derived their name from the shape of that particular district. Bede speaks of it as “*illa patria quae Angulus dicitur.*”

The name “England” was first used to designate the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of the Heptarchy in the time of Egbert (827 A. D.) when he united them into one kingdom, or, at least, under one sway. It is asserted that this king issued a royal decree proclaiming the name of England for the country, and the name of English for the inhabitants and for the language. It remained, however, for the Danes and for the Normans (particularly the latter) to unite with the Anglo-Saxons before the final formation of that kingdom and of that people, we now know as England and the English, took place.

The word “Saxon” is the name of the second of those tribes which, coming from the shores of the North Sea in the district of Holstein, followed the Jutes in their descent on Britain. The name is derived from “sax,” “saex” or “seax,” meaning a knife, or short sword, so that Saxon would mean the wearer of a short sword.

The term Anglo-Saxon is used to denote all those tribes of Jutes, Saxons and Angles which came to Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries. They came from neighbouring districts, were of the same stock and spoke different

dialects of the same language, and so, under this name, they are regarded as one people settling in Britain.

There is some dispute as to whether Anglo (Angle) in the compound word “Anglo-Saxon” is to be considered in a substantive sense or whether it is to be treated as an adjective to distinguish the English Saxon from the Old Saxon who remained in his German home.

Wales is the name for that portion of England which forms a great peninsula on the western coast. It is an administrative division of England and has been united to it since the time of Edward I, who made it into a principality by creating his young son (afterward Edward II) Prince of Wales.

The name of Welsh was given to the inhabitants of the country in early times by the Anglo-Saxons. The word means foreigners and was applied to those Celts whom they found living there as well as to those Britons whom they forced to flee to this portion of the island.

Scotland is the northern portion of the island of Great Britain. It means the land of the Scottas, or Scotti. The etymology of this word is obscure. Until the reign of King Alfred, the word Scottas was used to denote the people of Ireland, who were a Gaelic branch of the Celtic race. They established a settlement in Argyll in the sixth century and gradually extended over the country then occupied by the Piets, as the inhabitants of Caledonia were known.

Finally the two races were joined in the kingship of Kenneth McAlpin and from that time (middle of the ninth century) the northern part of Great Britain was known as Scotland.

The name of Caledonia was given by the Romans to the most northerly part of Great Britain and, more particularly, to the most northerly province, or division, of the island by them. It corresponded to what is now known as the Highlands. The use of the word “Caledonia” to designate Scotland is now archaic, although sometimes found in poetry.

That portion of Scotland lying north of the River Forth is known as the Highlands, while that south is known as the Lowlands.

Topographical and racial conditions have made this natural division of the country a potent factor in its history.

Ireland was first known as Ierne, Iernia and Hibernia by the Romans, and the etymology of its name, like its ancient history, is obscure and involved in myth. Henry II, always desirous of securing new dominions, sent over certain of his followers to Ireland in the year 1169 A. D., and from that date its history impinges upon that of England.

That portion of the country dominated by the English (in the eastern part of the island about Dublin and which, from time to time, varied in extent) was called the “Pale,” so that the remainder of the country was said to be “beyond the Pale,” and was under the dominion of various chieftains who were more or less hostile to the English.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE is the direct result of the combination of Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French subsequent to the Norman Conquest.

The Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles were closely allied tribes dwelling in the northern part of Germany and in Denmark who spoke different dialects of the same language, which belonged to the Low German division of the southern, or German, branch of the Teutonic family of Aryan languages. The exact locations of the former homes of these tribes are difficult to determine. Some historians make them proceed from the territory now known as Friesland, while others contend that what is now known as Denmark comprehended all the districts of these tribes.

The weight of authority would seem to place them as follows: the Jutes in the middle and the whole, or a portion, of the northerly part of Denmark; the Angles in the district known as Schleswick; the Saxons in the district of Holstein. It is also contended that the dialect of the Jute was more closely connected with the Saxon (Old Saxon) dialect than was that of the Angle and would denote that the Jutes dwelt between the lands of the Angles and the Saxons instead of north of the former and that the original dialect of the Angle was more closely allied to the Scandinavian than it was to that of the Saxons. But these hypotheses merely show the difficulty of exactly locating the former homes of the three principal tribes which formed the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms.

When these tribes invaded Britain (449-588 A. D.) they found the Celtic language and the Latin, the former as the popular, the latter as the polite and learned tongue which had been imported by the Romans during their occupation of the island and which was chiefly confined to the towns. As the Anglo-Saxon tribes were of the same

race and had the same customs and manners, and as the difference in their speech was merely dialectical, it was natural that they should assimilate, while the common enmity of the Celt against them would prevent any appreciable influence by the Celtic tongue. So it is supposed that the Celtic and the Latin of this period had little or no influence on the fusion of those Anglo-Saxon dialects which was taking place.

Latin was again introduced in Britain when Pope Gregory I (the Great) sent Saint Augustine to convert the Anglo-Saxons and to establish the authority of the Roman See. Augustine, with his thirty-nine companions, landed at Thanet in the early part of the year 597 A. D., but the Latin Language was confined to the learned and had little influence on the rapidly developing Anglo-Saxon speech.

The next language which was brought in contact with it was that of the Vikings of Scandinavia and Denmark. These Vikings were the inhabitants of Scandinavia and, coming from the coasts of Norway and Sweden, had taken possession of the former northerly holdings of the Anglo-Saxon tribes in Denmark after the latter had emigrated to Britain. It is possible that some of these Vikings were a part of the original tribe of Jutes who had remained in Denmark and had become affiliated with the Norse and Swedish tribes.

The name "Vikings" was given generally to those bands of hardy freebooters from Scandinavia and Denmark who began their incursions upon the northern and western shores of Europe and upon England early in the ninth century. They were called Danes in England and

Norsemen, or Northmen, in France and Europe generally. The name Normandy marks their acquisition of territory in northern France, while the old term of "Danelagh" marked for many years that portion of eastern England held by them from the Peace of Wedmore (878 A. D.) until the Norman Conquest. This term of "viking" is derived from the word "vik," meaning a creek or small bay, so that "vikingr," or "viking," would mean a frequenter of creeks, and applied to every member of these piratical hordes. The term "sea-king" is not the translation of the word "viking," for the former denotes the leader, or chief, of such a band, so that while a Scandinavian sea-king was a viking, the latter name would apply to each of his wild followers. They spoke a language known as Old Danish, which belonged to the northern, or Scandinavian, branch of the Teutonic family of Aryan languages. Their incursions, their settlement in the Danelagh (also written Danelaw), the rule of the Danish kings—Canute, Harold and Hardicanute—brought their language in close contact with the Anglo-Saxon, but while it may have had some effect upon the latter yet this effect was not a very pronounced one. From the time of the Battle of Hastings (1066 A. D.) until about 1250 A. D., Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French were spoken side by side, the Norman disdaining the vernacular of the Saxons. The Norman-French tongue was, in effect, the colloquial and colonial Latin of Gaul adopted by the Northmen upon their acquisition and colonization of that portion of France which has since borne their name. As time went on, however, the Anglo-Saxons and Normans were drawn closer and closer, the feelings of

animosity disappeared and there grew up a speech known and spoken by both. The amalgamation of the two races is said to have taken place in the reign of Henry II (1154-1189). This was the beginning of the English speech of today, and although it may be regarded as the direct development of the Anglo-Saxon, yet, during the great transition period from 1066 A. D. to 1350 A. D., the latter was so altered as to appear at the end of that time as a distinct language. There are two great differences between the two tongues. The first in point of importance as well as in point of time took place between 1150 A. D. and 1250 A. D. and consisted in the loss of inflections. Anglo-Saxon was an inflected, or synthetic, language, while English is not an inflected language but an analytic one. The second great difference took place between 1250 A. D. and 1350 A. D. and consisted in the vast increase in the vocabulary of the English and its greater pliability by reason of the introduction of the rich store of Latin words through the medium of the Norman-French. The great influence of the Norman-French can thus be seen in these two vast changes, so it may here be noted that while some call the Anglo-Saxon period Old English, others give this name to the period between 1250 A. D. and 1350 A. D.

A potent factor in the union of the two languages, Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French, was the continued oppression of the Crown, which bore heavily upon both peoples and created a common spirit of nationality. Opposition to this oppression culminated in the meeting of the Barons with King John at Runnymede and the signing of the Magna Charta on June 15, 1215, so that

this date has almost as much significance in literature as it has in history.

From the very nature of the case exact dates of transitions in the language from one stage of development to another cannot be given. There is diversity of opinion not only as to these but also as to the nomenclature of the divisions showing the different stages. Thus the name of Old Saxon is generally given to those of the Saxons who remained on the Continent to distinguish them from their brethren who came to Britain at the time of the Anglo-Saxon invasion. And this name applies to the language which the Old Saxons used. But some use this term to apply to the Anglo-Saxon period (449 A. D. to 1066 A. D.), while others call it the Old English.

A concise expression of the derivation of English may be thus given: the English language is the direct descendant of the Anglo-Saxon in combination with the Norman-French.

English literature, as distinguished from Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French, may be said to date from the time of Chaucer (1340-1400), since which time there has been a steady growth and, by reason of its inherent strength and beauty as well as by many other wonderful properties, it has become the classic language known as Modern English.

Caxton (about 1422-1491), by the introduction of printing into England in the year 1477, advanced the cause of the language by fixing grammatical form and orthography, since, by means of this art, the syntax and orthography naturally became more uniform and were less liable

to changes and alterations due to the mistakes or to the dialectical differences of various transcribers.

Shakespeare (1564-1616), by his genius and industry and through the great medium of the drama, did much to mould the form of the language. But the greatest influence exerted for the welfare of the English and for the establishment of a classic style was the translation of the Holy Bible (commenced in 1604, and printed in 1611) known as the authorized, or King James, version.

The official recognition of the language did not keep exact pace with its literary growth, although one of the earliest specimens of English, or Old English, is the Proclamation of Henry III to the people of Huntingdonshire in the year 1258 A. D.

In 1362 A. D. (36 Edward III, Chap. 15), it was enacted that pleas in the courts should be made in English and enrolled in Latin.

In 1731 A. D. (4 George II, Chap. 26), it was ordered that on and after 25 March, 1733, "all Proceedings whatsoever in any Courts of Justice in that Part of Great Britain called England, and in the Court of Exchequer in Scotland, and which concern the Law and Administration of Justice, shall be in the English Tongue and Language only and not in Latin or French, or any other Tongue or Language whatsoever."

The above Act was extended to the Principality of Wales in the year 1733 A. D. by the Statute of 4 George II, Chap. 26, sec. 3.

From the above remarks it will be seen that there are two ways to regard the growth and development of the English language.

If we consider it as the natural development and growth of the speech of the Anglo-Saxon tribes (although materially altered by outside influences during the period from 1066 to 1350), and that the language has retained the inherent qualities of the earlier times notwithstanding the outside influences, we may view the matter from a historical standpoint and may regard the history of the language as coincident with the history of the Anglo-Saxons who began the English nation of today when they first landed in 449 A. D.

On the other hand, it may be thought that the changes wrought were so material, and the Norman-French and other influences so vital and so strong, as to produce a distinct language. This may be considered a linguistic or literary view. The question narrows itself down as to whether the degree of dissimilarity is such as will sustain the distinction or not. But we may agree that there can be no doubt that English is the direct descendant of the Anglo-Saxon; that it met with great and radical changes in the transition period, during which time it combined with the Norman-French; that we now possess a language that differs materially from its predecessor.

A further discussion of this subject belongs to the history of literature and of the English language.

As stated above, there are various classifications, or divisions, of the periods of growth and development of the language, and it will be found that authorities vary greatly in their nomenclature of the periods, so that it is often confusing. Frequently, this difference is attributable to the personal bias, or viewpoint, of the author in

question, which is true not only as to the history of literature but also as to general history.

Thus, some call the period from the accession of Henry VII (1485) to 1611 Tudor, or Early Modern, English; others declare that Modern English should be applied to the language and literature which began about the middle of the reign of Elizabeth (about 1580); others point to 1477 as the beginning of Modern English. The many changes in the English language give grounds for various classifications, but the following is a general one and conforms to the greater changes that have taken place:

Anglo-Saxon (Old English)—449 to 1066, or 1100.

Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French and Transition Period—1066 to 1350.

English, First Period—1350 to 1611.

English, Second Period—1611 to present.

SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

(General Note—The ascertainment of exact dates is difficult, if not impossible, in a number of instances, for many reasons. Particularly is this true of the regnal dates, and of dates generally, in the earlier periods. Indeed the difficulties incident to the exact computation of dates extend to a comparatively late period when it is considered that the Gregorian Calendar was not adopted in England until 1752, and that even in the Middle Ages ecclesiastical and local methods were in use beside the Julian Calendar and the Christian Era. There are apparently conflicting statements, particularly by the older chroniclers, which cannot now be reconciled. Added to these difficulties, different ideas, usages and laws prevailed at different periods in regard to the beginning of a reign.)

Anglo-Saxon (Saxon) Kings.

Note—Dates given for this period cannot always be stated with historical accuracy. The authorities, from which our knowledge of this period is gleaned, such as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, Bede and others, do not give us the certainty desired as to date of the occurrences mentioned and described by them. Nor do they give us a full account of the happenings of the times, so that in many instances we are obliged to draw our own conclusions, or inferences, as to the effects of the facts they have stated.

There were, no doubt, periods of time when the struggles for supremacy may have caused interregnums, or divided authorities, but the exact effects of which are hard to determine.

Thus, if we regard Ethelbald and Ethelbert as reigning together, the one over the one part of the kingdom of Ethelwolf, the other over the other part, with equal sovereign power, we have Ethelbald-Ethelbert, 858 to 860; Ethelbert, 860 to 866; that is, Ethelbert would begin his joint reign with Ethelbald in 858, his sole reign in 860. If we regard Ethelbald as taking the chief sovereignty from his father, Ethelwolf, and Ethelbert as taking a part of the kingdom without full regal power, we have Ethelbald 858-860. So, it may be noted, Ethelred II fled from his kingdom in 1012 or 1013, and some contend this was an abdication which continued until he returned, or was restored, in 1015. As Sweyn had received the submission of most of the nobles and was virtual king, it is difficult to decide whether Sweyn should be recognized as a king or simply as an usurper. From more modern

usage it is thought that he should be regarded in the latter light, although he actually set up a rival throne which continued for six or eight weeks, from December, 1013, until his death in February, 1014.

There is also the difficulty experienced in the Harold and Hardicanute reigns as to the dates to be assigned.

As for the actual difference in dates given by different authorities, it is to be noted that some claim Egbert died in the year 836, others that he died in 837, and still others assert that his death took place in 839. Edwy's death is fixed in the year 957, and also in the year 959. Alfred's death is placed either in 899, 900 or 901.

It will be seen from the above that there is great difficulty attending the fixing of the dates of this period.

It must also be remembered that the idea that there would be no vacancy in the throne did not grow up until a much later period after the Anglo-Saxon times and that kingship was considered at first as an elective office and that the custom grew to give it to the son of the deceased monarch. Just when this custom became, in effect, a binding rule it is hard to determine, but it must have had such force shortly after the time of Egbert.

Egbert—A. D. 827-836 (or 837 or 839).

Ethelwolf—A. D. 836-858 (or 857).

{ Ethelbald—A. D. 858-860.

{ Ethelbert—A. D. 860-866.

Ethelred—A. D. 866-871 (or 872).

Alfred (the Great)—A. D. 871-901 (or 899 or 900).

Edward I (the Elder)—A. D. 901-925.

Athelstan—A. D. 925-941 (or 940).

Edmund—A. D. 941-946 (or 947).

Edred—A. D. 946-955.

Edwy (Edwin)—A. D. 955-959.

Edgar—A. D. 959-975.

Edward II (the Martyr)—A. D. 975-978.

Ethelred (the Unready)—A. D. 978-1016.

Edmund Ironside—A. D. 1016-1016.

Danish Kings.

Canute—A. D. 1016-1035 (or 1036).

Harold I (Harefoot)—A. D. 1035-1040 (or 1039).

Hardicanute—A. D. 1040-1042 (or 1041).

Anglo-Saxon Line (Restored).

Edward (the Confessor)—A. D. 1042-1066.

Harold II—A. D. 1066—October 14, 1066.

SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

(From the time of the Norman Conquest.)

Note—The ascertainment of regnal dates is important in English history. Not only is it interesting to know the exact time of the beginning of a reign, but it is essential in considering the statutes of the realm, which are dated by the method of computing their enactment from the beginning of a sovereign's rule. It is said that Richard I was the first English king to use this method.

Every regnal year is in part of two calendar years unless the accession takes place on the first day of January (which it has never done as yet) when the regnal and calendar years coincide in so far as the regnal year will begin and end with the calendar year, or unless the regnal year has been cut short by death, or other cause, before going from one calendar year into another. Thus the first regnal year of Edward VII began on 22 January, 1901, and ended on 21 January, 1902.

Different customs, usages and laws prevailed at different times for determining the beginning of a reign. In the earlier times an ecclesiastical ceremony, a “crowning” or coronation, was considered necessary to the institution of a reign. It was then considered that the office of kingship had something of an elective nature and that it was necessary to have the formal sanction of barons and nobles.

As was said in the case of Edward II, he succeeded to the throne not so much by hereditary right as by the unanimous consent of the nobles and great men (“*non tam jure hereditario, quam unanimi assensu procerum et magnatum*”). This continued from William I to the time of Edward III, and during this period the beginning of a reign commenced at the time of the coronation. During this period there was always great unrest from the death of a king until the coronation of his successor.

Then the hereditary idea of kingship began to gather form, and from the time of Edward III to the succession of Edward VI regnal dates were calculated to begin the day after the death of the preceding sovereign. Then the doctrine was accepted that the throne goes by descent and not by succession, and that there can be no hiatus in the sovereignty—no interregnum. This is expressed by the legal maxim, “The King never dies” (*Rex nunquam moritur*). So that now the regnal dates are reckoned to commence on the same day and at the same time as the death of the preceding sovereign. This usage has come down from the time of Edward III and was legally approved by a decision, or resolution, of the barons and judges in passing upon the Statute of 1 Edward VI,

Chap. 7, in the first (regnal) year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. They stated, "The King who is heir, or successor, may write and begin his reign the same day that his progenitor, or predecessor, died,"

A good illustration of this doctrine is found in the case of the period of the Commonwealth (1649-1660), which is sometimes styled an interregnum, although the judges under Charles II decided that he was the king during this time in fact as well as in law, because as the English law recognized no other sovereign power than that of the king, any intervening administration was illegal and void. From this reasoning it followed that the statutes passed during the first year after the restoration of Charles II are quoted as acts passed in the twelfth year of his reign. While the reasoning that Charles II was, during this period, king *de jure* might be plausible, it is hard to understand that he was king *de facto*.

It may be well to note, in connection with the following table, a few facts connected with the chronology of certain of the reigns:

Henry VI was deposed by Edward IV on 4 March, 1461. In October, 1470, Henry regained possession of the throne and resumed the legal title, so from 9 October, 1470, until April, 1471, he might be considered as again being king. After Edward IV repossessed himself of the kingdom, he continued to reckon his reign from 4 March, 1461.

Lady Jane Grey is not generally mentioned as having reigned as queen, since her accession of royal power was treated as an usurpation. If, however, it is considered

that she is to be regarded as having wielded the royal power and entitled to be classified as sovereign, we have—

Jane—Began 6 July, 1553; ended 17 July, 1553.

James II fled to France in December, 1688, after William of Orange had landed at Torbay on 5 November, 1688. From the time of his flight until 13 February, 1689, is sometimes regarded as an interregnum and the Convention of the estates of the realm declared the throne vacant, although James' departure from the kingdom was more a flight than an abdication, as his subsequent efforts to regain the throne demonstrate.

The beginning of the reign of William and Mary is fixed by the acceptance of the Declaration of Rights, passed by the Convention. This acceptance took place on 13 February, 1689.

William III commenced to reign alone upon the death of Mary, his wife, with whom he had reigned as William and Mary. When they ascended the throne it was agreed that they should reign jointly, but that the actual administration of affairs should be vested in William. Mary died on 27 December, 1694, and it was determined that this date should close his sixth regnal year as William and Mary, and that the 28 December should begin his seventh regnal year, which was in reality the beginning of his sole reign as William III. This calculation shows the necessity of remembering the exact date of the beginning of a reign. The first regnal year of William and Mary commenced on 13 February, 1689, and ended on 12 February, 1690. The sixth regnal year of these sove-

reigns began on 13 February, 1694, and, if Mary had lived, would not have closed until 12 February, 1695.

George I (Guelph) belonged to the Hanoverian dynasty (or, as some prefer to call it, the Brunswick line) of English kings. He was the son of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, who was the daughter of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia. Elizabeth was the daughter of James I, so that George I was the great-grandson of the first Stuart king.

By the Act of Settlement (12 and 13 William III, Chap. 2), the throne went to Anne and, in the event of her dying without issue surviving her, to the Electress Sophia and "the heirs of her body."

The Electress predeceased Queen Anne, so that upon the latter's death George ascended the throne. The thrones of England and of Hanover were separated upon the death of William IV and the accession of Queen Victoria to the English throne on 20 June, 1837.

Edward VII (Wettin) was of the line of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, his father, the prince consort, having been a prince of that house. Dynastically, however, Edward VII and George V should be considered as belonging to the Hanoverian dynasty.

The beginning of the reign of William the Conqueror has occasioned much discussion. Some contend that it began on the date of the Battle of Hastings (or Battle of Senlac Hill, as it is also called), which took place on 14 October, 1066. Others believe it should be reckoned, according to the ideas then prevailing and that William himself, by his formal coronation on 25 December, 1066, showed that it was his intention to reign not as conqueror but as lawful successor.

Norman.

William I (the Conqueror)—Began 25 December, 1066 ; ended 9 September, 1087.

William II (Rufus)—Began 26 September, 1087 ; ended 2 August, 1100.

Henry I (Beaumont)—Began 5 August, 1100 ; ended 1 December 1135.

Stephen (of Blois)—Began 26 December, 1135 ; ended 25 October, 1154.

Plantagenet (or Angevin).

Henry II (Curt Mantel)—Began 19 December, 1154 ; ended 6 July, 1189.

Richard I (Coeur de Lion)—Began 3 September, 1189 ; ended 6 April, 1199.

John (Lackland)—Began 27 May, 1199 ; ended 19 October, 1216.

Henry III (Winchester)—Began 28 October, 1216 ; ended 16 November, 1272.

Edward I (Longshanks)—Began 20 November, 1272 ; ended 7 July, 1307.

Edward II (Caernarvon)—Began 8 July, 1307 ; ended 20 January, 1327.

Edward III (Windsor)—Began 25 January, 1327 ; ended 21 June, 1377.

Richard II (Bordeaux)—Began 22 June, 1377 ; ended 29 September, 1399.

Lancaster.

Henry IV (Bolingbroke)—Began 30 September, 1399 ; ended 20 March, 1413.

Henry V (Monmouth)—Began 21 March, 1413 ; ended 31 August, 1422.

Henry VI (Windsor)—Began 1 September, 1422 ; ended 4 March, 1461.

York.

Edward IV—Began 4 March, 1461; ended 9 April, 1483.

Edward V—Began 9 April, 1483; ended 25 June, 1483.

Richard III—Began 26 June, 1483; ended 22 August, 1485.

Tudor.

Henry VII (Tudor)—Began 22 August, 1485; ended 21 April, 1509.

Henry VIII—Began 22 April, 1509; ended 28 January, 1547.

Edward VI—Began 28 January, 1547; ended 6 July, 1553.

Mary—Began 6 July, 1553; ended 24 July, 1554, upon her marriage with Philip.

Philip and Mary—Began 25 July, 1554; ended 17 November, 1558, by death of Mary.

Elizabeth—Began 17 November, 1558; ended 24 March, 1603.

Stuart.

James I—Began 24 March, 1603; ended 27 March, 1625.

Charles I—Began 27 March, 1625; ended 30 January, 1649.

The Commonwealth—Republic established at death of Charles I, 30 January, 1649; Oliver Cromwell made Protector, 16 December, 1653; Oliver Cromwell died 3 September, 1658, and was succeeded by his son, Richard Cromwell, who was proclaimed Protector, 4 September, 1658; Richard Cromwell abdicated, 25 May, 1659; monarchy restored, 8 May, 1660; Charles II entered London, 29 May, 1660.

Charles II—Began 30 January, 1649; ended 6 February, 1685.

James II—Began 6 February, 1685; ended (fled 11 and 23 December, 1688) 13 February, 1689.

William and Mary—Began 13 February, 1689; ended (death of Mary) 27 December, 1694.

William III—Began 28 December, 1694; ended 8 March, 1702.

Anne—Began 8 March, 1702; ended 1 August, 1714.

Hanover (or Brunswick).

George I—Began 1 August, 1714; ended 11 June, 1727.

George II—Began 11 June, 1727; ended 25 October, 1760.

George III—Began 25 October, 1760; ended 29 January, 1820.

George IV—Began 29 January, 1820; ended 26 June, 1830.

William IV—Began 26 June, 1830; ended 20 June, 1837.

Victoria—Began 20 June, 1837 (married to Albert, Duke of Saxony and Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, on 10 February, 1840; Albert was ordered to be styled “Prince-Consort” on 25 June, 1857; he died 14 December, 1861); ended 22 January, 1901.

Edward VII—Began 22 January, 1901; ended 6 May, 1910.

George V—Began 6 May, 1910; ended —————.

APPENDIX

Money and Monetary System.

Monetary values are reckoned in Pounds, Shillings and Pence, the abbreviations being derived from the Latin words *libra*, *solidus* and *denarius*. Thus we have “£” for Pounds, “s” for Shillings, “d” for Pence, from the first letter of the Latin words.

The Penny is divided into Farthings, whose symbol is “far.”

Table.

4 Farthings (far.) = 1 Penny (d).

12 Pence = 1 Shilling (s).

20 Shillings = 1 Pound Sterling (£).

The Pound is often called, colloquially, Sovereign.

In Great Britain the money is metallic, paper money being issued by banks. Gold is the standard, the Pound Sterling is the unit. Other coins are also minted in silver and bronze.

In certain large transactions the values are reckoned in Guineas, a Guinea being equivalent to 21 Shillings.

A Crown is a silver coin equivalent to 5 Shillings, while a Florin is worth 2 Shillings.

The following table of former coins and values may prove useful to the reader of history, but it is to be recollected that the exact values differed at different times and their purchasing power differed: 1 Groat = 4d; 1 Tester = 6d; 1 Noble = 6s 8d; 1 Angel = 10s; 1 Mark = 13s 4d; 1 Jacobus = 23s; 1 Carolus = 25s; 1 Broad = 3£ 12s.

India has a currency system of its own, as have Canada and certain of the other dominions of the Empire.

SOVEREIGNS OF SCOTLAND.

(From Malcolm III, Canmore, to James VI of Scotland.)

Malcolm III.	1057-1093
Donald VII.	1093-1098
Duncan II.	1094-1095
Edgar.	1098-1107
Alexander I.	1107-1124
David I.	1124-1153
Malcolm IV.	1153-1165
William I (the Lion)	1165-1214
Alexander II.	1214-1249
Alexander III.	1249-1286
Margaret	1286-1290
John (Baliol)	1292-1296
Interregnum	1296-1306
During which Wallace was regent	1297-1298
Robert I (Bruce)	1306-1329
David II.	1329-1371
Robert II (Stuart)	1371-1390
Robert III.	1390-1406
James I.	1406-1437
James II.	1437-1460
James III.	1460-1488
James IV.	1488-1513
James V.	1513-1542
Mary	1542-1567
James VI, began to reign 24 July, 1567, and ascended the English throne 24 March, 1603.	

The Estates of the Realm is a constitutional term applied to the three great divisions of governing power—the King, Lords and Commons.

The nobility is divided into the five following ranks, the highest being that of Duke: (1) Duke, (2) Marquis, (3) Earl, (4) Viscount, (5) Baron. The title of Baronet is one of distinction but not of nobility.

Magna Charta was the declaration of English liberty forced by the barons from King John and signed and sealed at Runnymede on June 15, 1215. It has been referred to as "the keystone of English liberty" and has been frequently reaffirmed by succeeding sovereigns.

Fearing that the terms might be avoided thereafter, or that the "Charter" itself might be destroyed or seized later by the king, many copies were made at the time of its execution, or immediately thereafter, which were sent all over the country and ordered to be read twice publicly every year. Other copies were sent to castles and cathedrals as the safest repositories to be found for the preservation of this valuable document. There are four of these "originals" now known to be in existence: (1) The British Museum Magna Charta No. 1, (2) the British Magna Charta No. 2 (both of these being in the British Museum); (3) the Lincoln Magna Charta, now in the archives of Lincoln Cathedral; (4) the Salisbury Magna Charta, now in the archives of the Salisbury Cathedral. The Lincoln Magna Charta has been engrossed with more care and was chosen by the Commissioners in preparing the Statutes of the Realm. The four copies are alike except in a few trivial particulars. Magna Charta is usually divided into a preamble and 63 chapters, but in the originals there are no such divisions and indeed no divisions of any kind. These divisions have been made, no doubt, by later copyists for readier reference.

The Cinque Ports were originally the five seaports of Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover and Sandwich. To these were added the towns of Winchelsea and Wye. They

were a corporation to themselves, had broad governing powers, and, under their lord warden, were supposed to protect the southern seacoast, and indeed to furnish the navy for the nation.

The institution of the Cinque Ports existed from Anglo-Saxon times and was fully recognized by a charter granted to them by Edward I. Their charter rights were surrendered to the Crown in 1685, and their privileges were practically abolished in the years 1832 and 1835.

Shires and Counties. In Anglo-Saxon times, England was divided into shires which were governed by earldormen under the king in whose dominion the shire was located. The practical business of administration was left to the shire-reeve. From these words "earldormen" and "shire-reeve" we have derived earl and alderman (earldormen) and sheriff (shire-reeve). The Normans called these divisions counties and changed the name of earl to that of count, since restored to earl. But the term shire was still used, and is to the present day, although these local divisions are, as a rule, denominated counties in official communications, and we find Henry VIII dividing Wales into twelve shires (34 & 35 Henry VIII, Chap. 26). Local government in the counties, or shires, has been greatly changed by the Local Government Act of 1888 (51 & 52 Victoria, Chap. 41) as to England and Wales. Local customs of Anglo-Saxon and feudal times still survive in many places and have given rise to the old legal maxim, "*Consuetudo manerii et loci observanda est*" (The custom of the manor and of the locality should be regarded).

Early Anglo-Saxon Leaders. From time to time during the Anglo-Saxon period leaders would appear who, from their ability, would be regarded by the kings of the other tribes of the Heptarchy as a chief among them. The term of “bretwalda” is sometimes used to distinguish them, but it is questionable just what power this term implies. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle gives the list of seven kings, prior to Egbert, who “were sovereigns of all the British dominions,” and while they might have been elected as generals over all the other kings of the Heptarchy, yet they certainly did not possess the power now expressed by the word sovereignty: (1) Ella, king of the South-Saxons; (2) Ceawlin, king of the West-Saxons; (3) Ethelbert, king of Kent; (4) Redwald, king of the East-Angles; (5) Edwin, king of the Northumbrians; (6) Oswald, king of the Northumbrians; (7) Oswy, the brother of Oswald.

Tribes inhabiting England and Wales at the time of the Roman Invasion. The number and territory of these tribes cannot be exactly ascertained, but the following table may give an idea of the condition of the island at that time:

- I. Atrebati—Berkshire.
- II. Belgae—Somerset, Wiltshire, Isle of Wight, Hants.
- III. Brigantes—Yorkshire, Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberland and Durham.
- IV. Cantii—Kent.
- V. Catyeuchlani—Bedfordshire, Bucks and Hertfordshire.
- VI. Coritani—Northamptonshire, Leicester, Rutland, Lincoln, Nottingham and Derby.

- VII. Cornabii and Damnonii—Cornwall and Devonshire.
- VIII. Cornavii—Warwick, Cheshire, Shropshire, Stafford and Worcestershire.
- IX. Dimetae—Caermarthen, Pembroke and Cardiganshire.
- X. Dobuni—Gloucester and Oxfordshire.
- XI. Durotriges—Dorsetshire.
- XII. Iceni—Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge and Huntingdonshire.
- XIII. Ordovices—North Wales.
- XIV. Otaduni—Northumberland.
- XV. Regni—Surrey, Sussex and South Hants.
- XVI. Silures—South Wales.
- XVII. Trinobantes—Middlesex and Essex.

The Romans divided Great Britain into the following-named divisions or provinces:

- I. Britannia Prima, being the country south of the Thames and Severn.
- II. Britannia Secunda, or the portion of the country now known as Wales.
- III. Flavia Caesariensis, embracing the central counties from the Dee on the north to the Thames on the south, and from the eastern boundary of Britannia Secunda to the Wash and North Sea.
- IV. Maxima Caesariensis, from the Dee on the south to the wall of Adrian (which extended between the mouth of the River Tyne to the Solway) on the north.
- V. Valentia, from the wall of Adrian on the south to the rampart of Agricola (which extended from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde and was afterward restored and called the Wall of Antonine, or Graham's Dyke) on the north.
- VI. Caledonia, that part of Britain north of the rampart of Agricola.

The Heptarchy. The number of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms varied from time to time and it has been said that at no time were there precisely seven independent kingdoms, as the name would indicate.

The Anglo-Saxon period, especially from 449 to 827, is so confused in the sparse annals and chronicles of the time that it is impossible to speak with historical certainty of the exact relations of these principalities, as well as give exact dates. There are, however, certain facts which we do know from the accounts of this time, and it is from these that we can state that there were seven of these kingdoms, founded by the Jutes, the Angles and the Saxons, which stood out in a prominent way; and, from time to time, one of them would appear to be on the verge of assuming the sovereignty of the others. This did not occur until the time of Egbert, as we have heretofore seen, although there is some dispute as to whether Egbert should be called the first Anglo-Saxon, or English, king; that is, whether he possessed that power which made him a sovereign over all of Angla-land. The following are the kingdoms of the so-called Heptarchy, together with the approximate time of their several foundations and the names of their first leaders, or kings:

(Hengist and Horsa land at Ebbsfleet, Thanet, in 449 A. D.)

- I. Kent, founded by the Jutes under Hengist, 457 A. D.
- II. South Saxons, or Sussex (comprising Sussex and Surrey), founded by the Saxons under Ella, 491 A. D.

- III. West Saxons, or Wessex (comprising the country west of Sussex and south of the Thames, except Cornwall), founded by the Saxons under Cerdic, 519 A. D.
- IV. East Saxons, or Essex (comprising Essex and Middlesex), founded by the Saxons under Ereenwin, 527 A. D. This division was between Kent and Sussex on the south and Mercia and East Anglia on the north.
- V. Northumbria, the land north of the Humber (lying between Mercia on the south and the Firth of Forth on the north), founded by the Angles under Ida, 547 A. D. This kingdom was divided at first into the two states of Bernicia and Deira which began to unite in 588 A. D.
- VI. East Anglia (comprising Norfolk [North-Folk], Suffolk [South-Folk] and Cambridge), founded by the Angles under Uffa, 575 A. D.
- VII. Mercia (composed of what are now the midland counties), founded by the Angles under Cridda, 582 A. D.

The three principal kingdoms which contended for supremacy were Northumbria, Mercia and the West Saxons.



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